DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 074 604 EA 004 956

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TITLE Teacher Characteristics and Collective Bargaining Militancy.
PUB DATE Feb 73
NOTE 41p.; Paper presented at American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting (58th, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 26-March 1, 1973)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS Age Differences; Analysis of Variance; *Collective Negotiation; Economic Status; *Educational Research; Ethnic Origins; Models; *Political Affiliation; Religious Differences; Sex (Characteristics); Teacher Associations; Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Background; Teacher Characteristics; *Teacher Militancy; Teachers; Teacher Strikes
IDENTIFIERS AID; Automatic Interaction Detection

ABSTRACT

An attempt to develop a predictive model of teacher militancy using the Automatic Interaction Detection technique is described. By employing teacher background characteristics and attitudes toward teaching, the resulting model explains a significant amount of the variation in the degree of teacher militancy in a medium size, midwestern city with an NEA affiliate as a collective bargaining agent. In addition to model development, the findings of this study seriously question the often assumed proposition that union militancy is inimical to the professional status of teachers. (Author)

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Teacher Characteristics and Collective Bargaining Militancy

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Presented at the annual meetings of the American Education Research Association, February, 1973, New Orleans, Louisiana.

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING MILITANCY

Introduction

For many years the willingness to strike and the desire to bargain collectively were crucial points of difference between teachers' organizations and between individual teachers. The differences were based on conflicting philosophies concerning the appropriateness of associating teacher professionalism with blue-collar trade unionism. The large and time-honored National Education Association (NEA) opposed teacher unionism; the smaller and rival American Federation of Teachers (AFT) was based on it.

As strong and active teachers' unions ousted and threatened to oust teachers' associations from the nation's largest cities, the NEA reluctantly followed the lead of the AFT in accepting strikes and collective bargaining as legitimate forms of teacher militancy. Today the NEA conducts more strike actions than does the AFT. Distinctions of organizational militancy no longer are clear-cut, and merger of the two major teachers' groups is a real possibility, if not a likelihood.

Despite the trend toward reconciliation of organizational philosophies during and since the 1960's, important differences in this matter often exist in the thinking of individual teachers. The attitudes of teachers concerning militancy are of significance to the leaders of teachers' organizations, school boards, and the community for a variety of reasons. They might determine, for instance, whether the AFT would try to organize a local chapter in a certain school system. They might determine where, when, and whether the leadership of either an NEA or AFT affiliate decides to take a strike action. They might determine whether teachers decide to join, or vote to be represented by, an NEA or AFT affiliate. Or they

might determine the length and stubbornness of negotiations between teachers and school boards.

Teacher militancy is not a unitary phenomenon. There is an obvious distinction between action and attitude. Attitudes are not always acted upon; actions do not always concur with a person's attitudes. For this reason, attitudes may be considered "predispositions to action" (Cole, 1969a). However, it is our conviction that shared or prevalent attitudes are important in themselves, for such reasons as those cited above.

Alan Rosenthal has called attention to several dimensions of militancy (1969). The "new" teacher militancy, to him, involves ideas like collective power, combat, and effective participation in policy formulation (Rosenthal, 1969:13, 49). Rosenthal is especially interested in defining militancy in terms of the orientations of teacher leaders (1969:48-58).* He cites three distinct, but interrelated dimensions: (1) Goals (Do teacher leaders desire a decisive or consultative role in participating in educational policy decisions?); (2) Strategies (What are the views of teacher leaders concerning the power of teacher organizations and the power of other participants in public school policies?); and (3) Tactics (Do teacher leaders rank as Fighters, Persuaders, or Cooperators on a four-item combativeness scale which measures dispositions toward conflict?).

Rosenthal has also researched factors affecting membership in teacher organizations, in the belief that organizational influence depends upon

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* Rosenthal (1969:61) summarized: "Despite the recent convergence of the two national organizations, leaders of large-city teacher organizations differ significantly in their orientations toward participation, power, and especially combat. Among our respondents from five cities, members of AFT are those most likely to adopt goals, strategies, and techniques which together comprise the major components of organizational militancy."

strength, and that an important basis of organizational strength is the number of teacher members (1966 and 1969:22-47). Some factors he investigated concerned attributes of the teachers themselves, others concerned the school contexts in which teachers work, and a few related to the activities of teacher organizations (Rosenthal, 1966:359).

Rosenthal's study included membership in three teachers' groups: AFT unions in New York City and Boston, and one independent organization in Boston. He found that men are more apt to join a union than women, and that teachers of either sex are more apt to join a union if they teach in a school where there is a higher density of men teachers. In the years of greatest expansion, the union seems to be especially attractive to newer teachers, but it is most consistently attractive to junior high teachers. His data demonstrate that "dramatic and militant activities" can be very effective methods of recruiting new union members (Rosenthal, 1966:361-378).

Rosenthal's is a longitudinal study, encompassing data from 1962, 1963, and 1965. Perhaps his most important finding is that factors associated with union membership change over time (Rosenthal, 1969:46).

> It may be that in the initial stages of organizational growth early recruits join unions for a variety of reasons unrelated to whether they are male or female or whether men or women set the tone in their individual schools. With growth proceeding apace and recruitment increasing in extent, sex-related attitudes and school climates become important. By the time an organization reaches maturity and membership becomes rather commonplace, things pretty well even out and male-female differences recede in prominence. When analysis focuses on specifics, approximately the same type of variability applies to division or level. Generally, differences between membership rates in elementary, junior high, and high schools seem greater in the early and middle phases of organizational growth than in the later stage.

Ronald G. Corwin has considered the nature of "militant profession-

alism" among teachers (1965). While Rosenthal was primarily concerned with the role of teachers' organizations as pressure groups in educational policy making, Corwin is primarily concerned with the professionalization of teachers as a militant process. His analysis deals with conflicts between bureaucratic and professional principles of school organization and of teachers' roles. He hypothesizes that teacher professionalism "encourages militancy because the increased autonomy over work demanded by professionals will be resisted by strong American traditions of lay control and the entrenched power of administrators" (Corwin, 1965:311).*

Corwin distinguishes between professional and bureaucratic-employee role definitions, and uses two indices of militancy: (1) the disposition of teachers toward either taking initiative or showing compliance with authority in professional matters, and (2) overt conflict incidents (1965: 311-315). He finds that the configuration of the two role conceptions is more important than either role taken alone (Corwin, 1965:329-330). "Functional bureaucrats," who are simultaneously more professional and less bureaucratic, were the most militant group in his sample. "Initiative-taking teachers" were also found to be militant professionals. The former tended to be informal leaders; the latter tended to be most active in teacher organizations.

Other studies have analyzed background characteristics associated with teacher militancy. Stephen Cole, for instance, has studied non-teaching statuses in connection with militant attitudes (1968 and 1969b:

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* Corwin (1965:314) does not imply that teacher militancy has its only source in a desire to advance the professional status of teaching. Militancy also results from other sources, such as personal alienation or the labor movement.

76-98). He discovered that religion, political affiliation, and class of origin provide early socialization in attitudes toward unionism which then influence attitudes toward teacher unions in particular. Sex was found to be an important non-teaching status, as male teachers were more likely to feel deprived relative to men in higher prestige occupations serving as reference groups.

Cole also looked at certain teaching statuses, i.e., professional statuses involving socialization after entering the school system (1969b: 99-108). Type of school influenced militancy, as secondary school teachers were more militant than elementary school teachers, even when controlling for sex. "Prestige dissatisfaction," or dissatisfaction with the standing of the teaching profession in the community, was a more important contributor to militancy among secondary school teachers. "Dissatisfaction with working conditions," on the other hand, was more important among elementary teachers in influencing attitudes toward the teacher union movement.

To Cole, then, militancy means attitudes favorable to the teacher union movement. He concludes that a teacher's location within the school system is not as important as his nonteaching characteristics in determining whether he supports the union movement (Cole, 1969b:108).

In a recent review essay, Robert Dreeben (1972:327) discussed the works of Corwin (1970) and Cole (1969b) in the light of two questions: "(1) What are the origins of teacher militancy? (2) Does militancy represent the attempt of an occupation to professionalize?" He finds that Cole and Corwin mean "entirely different things" in speaking of militancy (Dreeben, 1972:329).* Corwin looks for the origins of militancy in the

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* See preceding discussion for their definitions of militancy.

organizational structure of schools and school systems, while Cole looks within the occupation of teaching (Dreeben, 1972:328).

However, both sociologists associate militancy with the professionalization of teaching (Dreeben, 1972:333). To Corwin, interpersonal conflicts between teachers and administrators are indicative of the process of professionalization. To Cole, the unionization of teachers and union militancy are parts of that process.

Dreeben asserts that neither Cole nor Corwin has been successful in relating professionalism to militancy. Further, both men neglect an essential aspect of professions: demonstration of effectiveness in providing a needed service to the public. Dreeben reasons that greater and more secure economic well-being does not mean that teachers are, thereby, more effective educators (1972:334-337).

The preceding discussion makes clear that militancy implies different dimensions to different authors. There are militant attitudes and militant actions; there are militant teachers, teacher leaders, organizations. Militancy may be considered important in professionalizing teaching, in recruiting new members of teachers' organizations, and in delimiting the role of teachers in educational policy making. In addition, (a) militancy is generally a matter of degree, rather than a matter of total presence or absence; (b) factors associated with militancy probably change over time; and (c) teacher militancy can be viewed as a process in itself.*

The present study is closer in conceptual approach to Rosenthal and Cole than to Corwin. It is concerned specifically with "collective bar-

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* For example, the AFT for most of its history has had a no-strike policy. This was not changed until the early 1960's.

gaining militancy," i.e., with attitudes toward justifiability of strikes, strikes and professional standing, and union membership. Collective bargaining militancy is considered by the present authors to be not inherently related or inimical to the professionalization of teaching.

Our purpose has been to develop a model which relates background characteristics of teachers to the teacher militancy which is a part of the collective bargaining movement within education. The development of this model is the first step in a broader study of teacher militancy, and of the factors important in its development and maintenance. The next steps will include testing the model with already collected data; broadening the background characteristics, as warranted; and expanding the model by identifying and testing salient, non-demographic characteristics. This multiple-stage process is consistent with the overall logic and strategy of the AID technique explained below.

Data and Methods

The data used to generate the model relating teacher characteristics and attitudes on militancy was collected in December, 1970 in a medium-size, midwestern city. The school system was struck in September, 1970 by the teachers who are represented in collective bargaining by an NEA affiliate.

With the knowledge and cooperation of both the bargaining agent and the school system administration, a three-page questionnaire (see Appendix A) with twenty-two forced-choice items and one open-ended question was placed in the school mailbox of all teachers in the system (N = 855). There was a 65% (N = 555) return in the mailback. No follow-up was possible due to financial constraints and the time of distribution.

Seventeen items on the questionnaire requested background data, in-

cluding demographic data (age, sex, education, marital status, ethnic ancestry), religious and political affiliation, social class, teaching history and collective bargaining affiliation. The remaining five forced-choice items tapped teachers' attitudes on professionalism, strikes and their justifiability, voting behavior in the September, 1970 strike action, and an NEA-AFT merger. The open-ended question asked teachers to specify the difference between a teachers' union and the local NEA bargaining unit.

As noted, the reason for collecting the data from this survey was to generate a model relating background characteristics to attitudes on militancy. The problem is essentially one of determining which of the variables for which data have been collected are related to militancy, under what circumstances and through what intervening processes.

Automatic Interaction Detection (AID) as first suggested by Morgan and Sonquist (1963) is a technique primarily intended to provide answers to this kind of question. Basically, AID examines the interaction of a set of predictor variables and one dependent variable by successive applications of one-way analysis of variance. Given the units of analysis under consideration, the AID program asks what single predictor variable will provide the greatest improvement in our ability to predict values of the dependent variable. Employing a nonsymmetrical branching process to subdivide the sample into a succession of subgroups which maximize this ability to predict will produce a tree-type model of binary splits clearly showing the relationships between the variables under examination.

In this study, we used the Brookings Institute version of AID which is written for the PDP-10 computer. It has the ability to handle up to thirty-seven (37) predictor variables in one set without the assumptions of addi-

tivity and linearity required in conventional multiple regression techniques. Perhaps the easiest way to convey the action of this program is to describe the operation of its basic algorithm.

To begin, the total sample is included in group one (i.e., the dependent variable). For this group a grand mean and total sum of squares is computed. From this unsplit sample, the group (i.e., one of the predictor variables) which has the largest sum of squares (around its own mean) is selected, provided that this quantity is larger than a specified fraction (1%) of the original total sum of squares (around the grand mean) and that this group contains more than some arbitrary minimum number (30) of cases. The minimum of 30 ensures that any further splits will be credible and have some sampling stability as well as reducing the error variance in the sample.

Next, the computer will find the division of the classes in any single predictor, such that combining classes to form a partition of this group into two nonoverlapping subgroups will provide the largest reduction in the unexplained sum of squares. This maximizes the between sum of squares over all possible binary splits on all predictors, with the following restrictions: (1) the classes of each predictor are ordered into descending sequence, using their means as a key and (2) observations belonging to classes which are not contiguous (after sorting) are not placed together in one of the new groups to be formed. Further partition of this group is possible if the between sum of squares is equal to or greater than some arbitrary parameter (1%) of the original total sum of squares. Otherwise, this group is not capable of being split by the program, that is no variable is "useful" in reducing the predictive error in this group. The next most promising group is then selected in accordance with the procedures just out-

lined. If there are no more unsplit groups meeting the program requirements, the process terminates (Sonquist and Morgan, 1964:5-6).

Inspection of the output produced by this program permits rapid construction of a tree-type model. Starting with the dependent variable, each binary split is represented by the difference of the means of the partitioned groups. There are several possible ways to doing this. We have chosen the commonly-used "trunk-branch" method, placing the newly formed group with the highest mean slightly above the recently split group and the other new group somewhat below. (If the reader will turn to one of the models included, this procedure will become readily apparent.) Along with these means, we also include in the model information regarding the number of observations and the classes within the predictor variable which characterize each group. When all of the splits have been illustrated, we add information regarding those predictor variables which "almost" split a group but did not meet one of the program requirements. The result is a graphic illustration of the relationships between the variables considered. At this point, we can also assess the total reduction in unexplained variation by the entire tree or any part of it. Thus we have determined which of the variables for which data was collected are related to the dependent variable, under what circumstances and through what intervening processes.

Findings

The final model is the result of a number of steps which allowed the AID program to sift the data thoroughly in the inductive model-building design of the study. The first step was to let each attitudinal variable (see the questionnaire in Appendix A, items 18 A-E, 19, 21, 22) be a de-

pendent variable and led AID run all useable variables (items 1-10, 11, 12, 18 A-E, 19, 21, 22) against each dependent item. Four dependent variables were found to be "most productive." These consisted of questions relating to teaching as a profession (18A), union membership (18B), loss of standing due to strike actions (18D) and the justifiability of strikes (19). "Most productive," in this case, means having the following characteristics: (1) a variation in the dependent variable such that the first split on a tree contained an $N \geq 30$; (2) there was more than one binary split in the series; (3) "most productive" variables split on each other. Finally, (4) the "most productive" were interrelated.

Of these four dependent variables, three were related to union militancy, i.e., collective bargaining and strike action. The question on teaching as a profession (18B) might be related to the other three dependent variables, but its validity as a measure of predisposition to collective bargaining action is not clear. Thus, this question was not used in further analysis.

The three questions asking about attitudes toward union membership and strike actions were combined into an unweighted "Index of Militant Attitudes" (IMA). The index was constructed by classifying a respondent as highly militant when answering "Strongly agree" or "Agree" to items 18B and 18D and "Justifiable under extreme circumstances....." or Justifiable whenever they can be effective" to item 19. All other responses were classified as low militancy.

A respondent could have three highs (H, H, H) on the militancy attitudes, two highs (H, H, L; H, L, H; L, H, H), one high (H, L, L; L, H, L; L, L, H) or no highs (L, L, L). Thus the IMA is an index with intervals

from one (three low militancy responses) to four (all three high militancy responses). The IMA was developed from the AID output to indicate those attitudinal measures related to militant predispositions which clearly differentiated within the sample. In effect, a new variable, the IMA, was created from the three most productive militancy attitude variables.

The second step was to let the IMA be the dependent variable and let all the background characteristic variables (items 1-10, 11, 12) run. What was most surprising about the resulting tree (see Tree A) was the absence of a symmetric pattern which included the variables cited in previous studies like Cole (1968; 1969b) and Rosenthal (1966; 1969), i.e., political affiliation, socio-economic background, religion, sex, experience and teaching division. What did result was an asymmetric tree showing clear interaction effects among some of the "expected " variables. Also confounding was the ethnic ancestry variable which showed no clear pattern related to militancy.

A second conclusion from Tree A is that the sample was only slightly militant (a mean of 2.70 with 2.50 as the mid-point of the IMA). This happened despite the fact that the survey was conducted less than two months after a three-week strike at the beginning of the school year.

Since sex was a factor in previous studies and presents a simple dichotomy for further analysis, the AID was run again separately on the male and female sub-samples. The results (Tree B and Tree C) again indicated political affiliation as the best predictor of attitudinal militancy but the trees were asymmetrical following that. In addition, ethnic ancestry again followed no consistent pattern and proved to be uninterpretable. But the means of the males in P_1 and in P_2 and P_3, the result of the first split,

were higher than the means of the females.

At this point, the result of the AID strategy was identification of political affiliation as the best predictor of the Index of Militant Attitudes. On Tree A and on the trees for the sex sub-samples, the same split occurred making the dichotomy between Republicans and all others (i.e., Democrats, Independents, Other). Political affiliation explained 9.57% of the variance on Tree A. It is difficult to draw any further conclusions from the tree, except that age and sex seem to be involved in an interaction effect within the more militant category on the political affiliation split.

In the third step it was decided to drop the confounding variable of ethnicity. As important as it might be expected to be, ethnicity did not exhibit any clear patterns in this sample. This may be due to the lack of a variety of strong ethnic traditions in the city under study. That the factor showed up in the trees is quite possibly an artifact of the large number of response categories which can be combined in numerous ways. The resulting splits on the variable seem to be more a function of the method than a clear indicator of substantive importance, at least in this instance.

In addition, it was decided that the age factor, which was also highly correlated with years of experience, should be controlled. There was also a question as to what variable(s) would be the best predictor(s) after political affiliation. The decision was made that step three would be to run twelve additional AID programs with the IMA as dependent variable and omitting ethnicity as an independent variable. These included running the whole sample and controlling for males and females, and for older, middle and younger age groups both with and without political affiliation included as an independent variable. (See Appendix B, Trees 1-12.)

As might be expected, political affiliation was the best predictor for the whole sample and for the sex and age subsamples, with the exception of the older (46 and over) age group. When political affiliation was excluded from the independent variables (Trees 4-6 and 10-12), three variables consistently showed up: current religious preference, father's occupation, and number of children. These three factors, however, interacted with age.

The explanation of these patterns seems to lie in the possibility that political affiliation is the best indicator of a "conservatism" dimension which includes political and religious affiliation and economic background dimensions. Since political affiliation is the strongest indicator, its presence clouds the economic and religious factors. When political affiliation is removed, these other indicators of a conservative dimension emerge.

It is also interesting to note that as age increases, immediate economic rather than ideological interests seem to predominate. On Trees 7-12, the older age group is apparently more affected by immediate economic responsibilities (number of children) while the middle and especially the younger age groups split on more ideological dimensions.

In terms of predictors of militant attitudes, political and economic items best differentiate the sample. When political affiliation is deleted, economic factors show for all ages. However, economic factors, especially immediate economic responsibilities, seem to be more salient with respect to older teachers' militancy attitudes.

Sex differences seem to be related to the differential impact of age. Among both males and females, political affiliation is the best predictor. But when political affiliation is excluded, age becomes the major differ-

entiator for females. After that, economic considerations take over, with the militancy split consistently resulting in those whose economic responsibilities seem to be less being also less militant (Tree 6).

For males, current economic responsibilities seem most important, but in an unexpected direction. Those with more children were less militant.

In sum, political affiliation, age and sex were the best predictors of militancy as measured by the IMA. Political affiliation seemed to be tapping a "conservatism" dimension with both ideological and current responsibility aspects. This dimension seems to include political and religious affiliation as well as class of origin and current social class.

One final tree was run using only political affiliation, age and sex as the independent variables. As will be noted, Tree D which resulted is virtually identical with Tree 1 in Appendix A. These three variables then account for the same proportion of variance in the whole sample explained by all the background variables used.

The explained variance of 13.76% requires comment. It is clear that factors other than background characteristics are important in collective bargaining militancy. Perhaps teaching milieu (i.e., the particular school and system circumstances), the characteristics of a collective bargaining agent and the history of the institutionalization of collective bargaining, perceptions of relative deprivation, and a number of other variables will enhance the model's ability to predict. As stated above, this first in a series of studies has confirmed the importance of three factors. The next steps will be to test this limited model, to explore the dimensions of these factors, and to expand the model to other variables to increase its explanatory power and predictive ability.

Discussion

Numerous studies have pointed to the influence of background characteristics as determinants of attitudes. The present study, however, leads to the conclusion that background characteristics alone do not account for the differences in attitudinal militancy expressed by the teachers surveyed. Extensive analysis of both non-teaching and teaching background characteristics could explain at best only 13.76% of the variation in teachers' collective bargaining militancy.

Our findings have importance when considered in relation to existing literature on teacher militancy. Cole found that non-teaching statuses, including political affiliation, religion, and class of origin, were correlated more closely than were teaching statuses with attitudes toward the teacher union movement. We have found that political affiliation, among all the background characteristics considered, explains the greatest amount of variation in teachers' collective bargaining militancy. This held true for all teachers in the sample and for males and females separately.

Rosenthal suggested that sex differences may become less prominent as an organization reaches maturity. The NEA affiliate which has been studied - in that it was founded in 1921, represents nearly all the city's public school teachers, has acted as collective bargaining agent since 1965, and conducted a strike in 1970 - is a mature organization. Our findings indicate that sex differences in militancy were not as great here in 1970 as they have been found to be elsewhere. This seems to be true for other variables which previous studies have cited as significant, e.g., teaching division, religion, and father's occupation.

It will be necessary to look at factors in addition to those considered

in this paper to further develop the model of collective bargaining militancy. Certain structural factors, like type of school, or social-psychological factors, such as feelings of relative deprivation, may today be as important as teachers' individual background characteristics in explaining attitudinal militancy.

It will also be sensible to investigate the relation between attitudinal and behavioral dimensions of teacher militancy. Perhaps past participation in militant activities, in connection with a teachers' organization or any group movement, may be an important determinant of attitudinal militancy. It may be possible to obtain a behavioral measurement of collective bargaining militancy in the present or other sites where the attitudinal model has been used. The question of the relationship between behavioral and attitudinal dimensions of militancy could than be addressed directly.

The model of collective bargaining militancy presented in this paper was developed for testing and analysis of other data. This work will begin in coming months using data on teachers in a large East-coast city obtained in June, 1970. This city represents a case different from the present city with respect to city size, region of country, diversity of teachers' organizations, choice of collective bargaining agent, and number of teachers represented. It will be possible to consider additional variables, such as teachers' perceptions of relative deprivation and type of school (inner-city and outer-city), in this analysis. It may also be feasible to relate attitudinal militancy to actual behavior, as the teachers were surveyed on several behavioral measures, e.g., participation in demonstrations and a strike, membership in the NEA and AFT affiliates or neither, and vote in an election for collective bargaining agent.

The present study, then, is part of a continuing project to develop a model of collective bargaining militancy which will be validated under a wide variety of circumstances. The present model allows us to make a reasonable assessment of the amount of variation in attitudes which background characteristics can be expected to explain, and shows us which background characteristics are the best predictors of attitudinal militancy.

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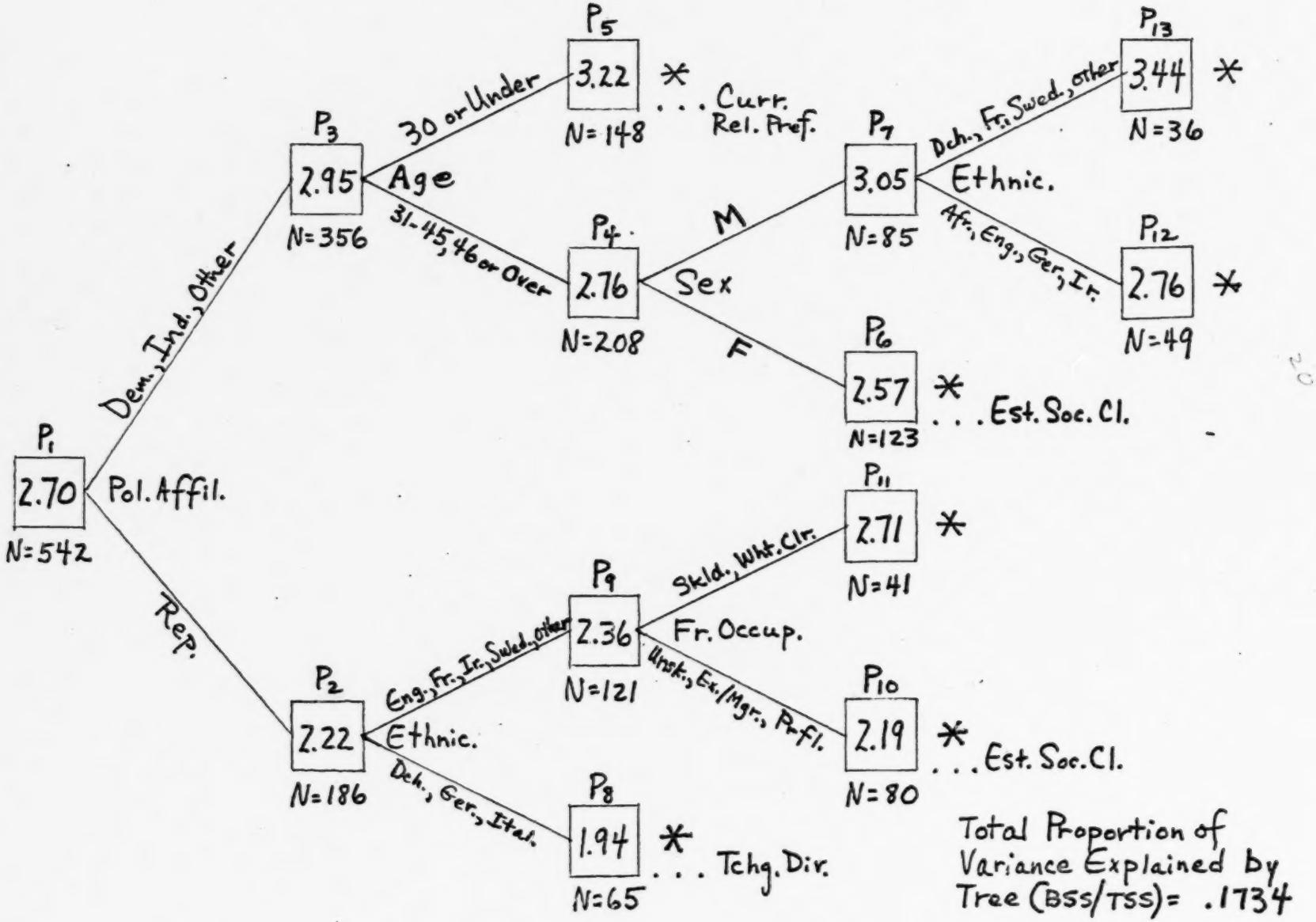
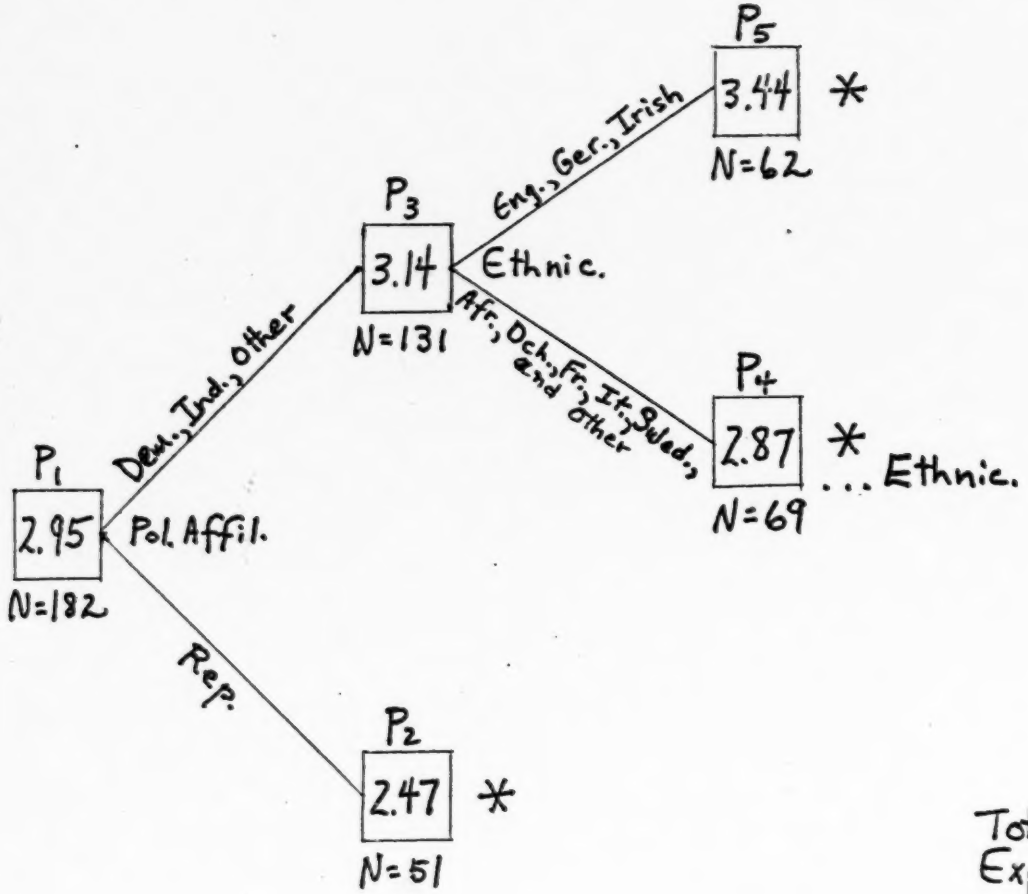
TREE A : IMA Means for All Cases, All Variables (Including Ethnic Ancestry)



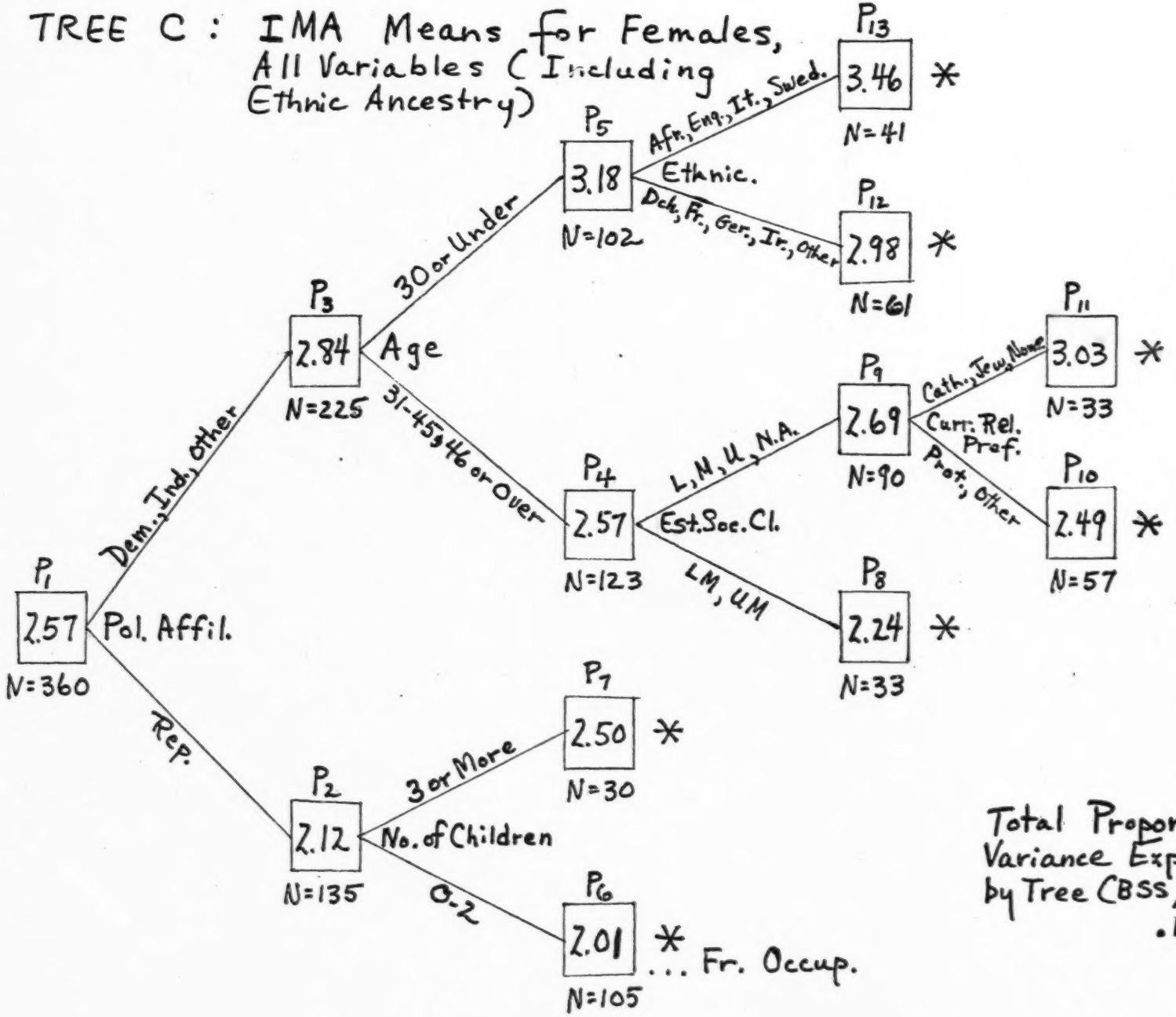
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1734

TREE B : IMA Means for Males, All Variables (Including Ethnic Ancestry)



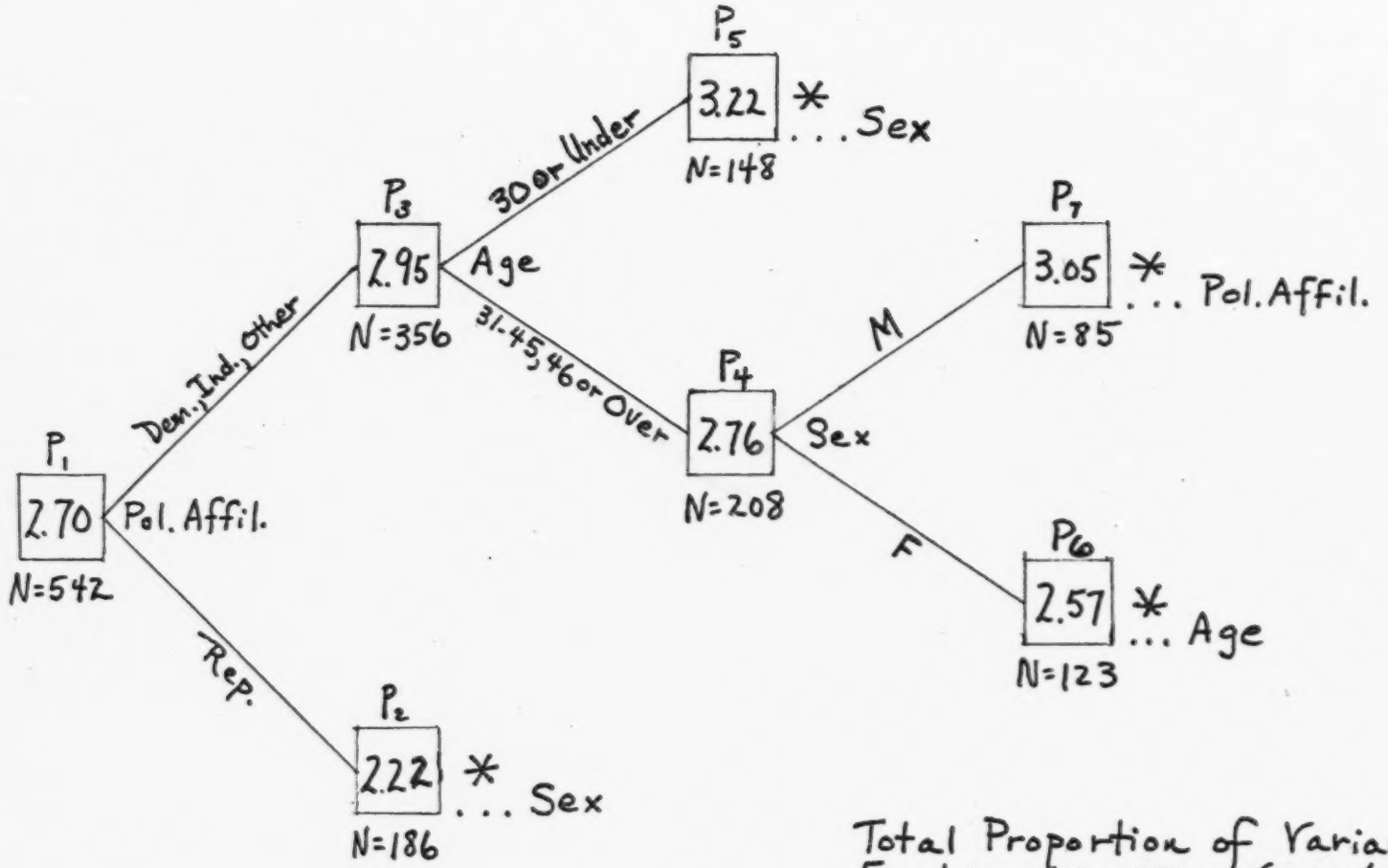
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1309

TREE C : IMA Means for Females, All Variables (Including Ethnic Ancestry)



Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1847

TREE D : IMA Means for All Cases, on Variables of Political Affiliation, Age and Sex Only



Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1376

APPENDIX A

The first group of questions (1-17) concerns your background. Such data are standard in sociological surveys, as you will recognize. The remaining questions (18-23) relate to your opinions on certain issues of importance to teachers. You can answer most questions by placing a check mark (✓) in the appropriate space. A few require a written response. Please answer all questions.

	Code	Question
4		1. Sex
	1___	Male
	2___	Female
5		2. Age
	1___	25 or under
	2___	26-30
	3___	31-35
	4___	36-40
	5___	41-45
	6___	46-50
	7___	51-55
	8___	56 or over
6		3. Marital Status
	1___	Single
	2___	Married
	3___	Divorced, widowed, separated
7		4. Number of Children
	0___	None
	1___	One
	2___	Two
	3___	Three
	4___	Four
	5___	Five
	6___	Six or more
8		5. Current Religious Preference
	1___	Protestant
	2___	Catholic
	3___	Jewish
	4___	none
	5___	other
9		6. In which of the following religious traditions were you raised?
	1___	Protestant
	2___	Catholic
	3___	Jewish
	4___	None
	5___	Other
10		7. Current Political Affiliation
	1___	Republican
	2___	Democrat
	3___	Independent
	4___	Other (specify:_____)
11		8. What is your ethnic ancestry? (Please be specific, such as African, English, Italian, etc.)
		_____
12		9. Which category best describes your father's major occupation while you were living at home?
	1___	Semi-skilled or unskilled worker
	2___	Skilled craftsman
	3___	White collar clerical or sales
	4___	Executive or managerial
	5___	Professional
	9___	Other (specify:_____)
13		10. Of which social class do you consider yourself to be a member?
	1___	Lower
	2___	Lower-middle
	3___	Middle
	4___	Upper-middle
	5___	Upper

	Code	Question
14-19 20-21 22-27 28-29 30-35 36-37		11. Please name the college and the year in which you received the following degrees: Bachelors: College_____ Year_____ Masters or credit equivalent: College_____ Year_____ Doctorate or credit equivalent: College_____ Year_____
38	1___ 2___ 3___	12. In which division do you teach? Elementary Junior High Senior High
39-40		School name: _____
41	1___ 2___ 3___ 4___	13. What is your present teacher status? Tenured Not tenured Permanent substitute Other (specify:_____)
42-43	__ __	14. How many years of teaching experience do you have? (Count 1970-1971 as one year) Years_____
44-45	__ __	15. For how many years have you taught in the City of Kalamazoo public schools? Years_____

	Code	Question
46	1___ 2___ 3___	16. Are you a member of the Kalamazoo City Education Association? A current member A former member Never a member
47-48	__ __	17. If you are a current member of KCEA, in what year did you join? Year_____
49	1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___	18. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements: A. Teaching is a profession. Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
50	1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___	B. A professional educator cannot be a union member. Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree
51	5___ 4___ 3___ 2___ 1___	C. Teachers' unions are more like professional organizations, such as the American Medical Association, than they are like trade unions, such as the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers. Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

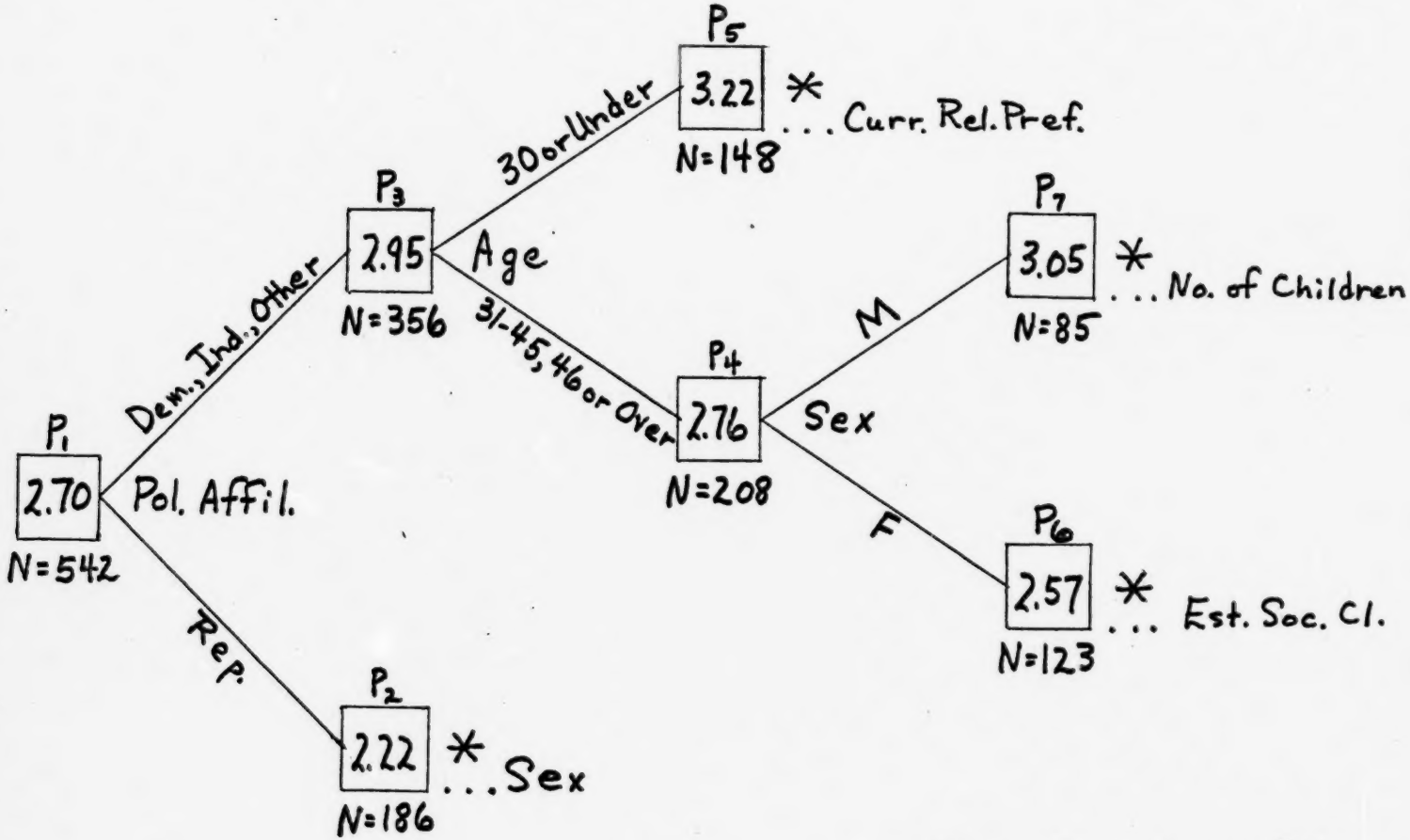
	Code	Question
52		D. The increasing number of strikes by public school teachers will result in a loss of teaching's professional standing in the community.
	1___	Strongly agree
	2___	Agree
	3___	Undecided
	4___	Disagree
	5___	Strongly disagree
53		E. The KCEA is doing enough to advance the interests of teachers
	1___	Strongly agree
	2___	Agree
	3___	Undecided
	4___	Disagree
	5___	Strongly disagree
54		19. How justifiable do you feel teachers' strikes are?
	1___	Never justifiable
	2___	Justifiable under extreme circumstances, but only where legal
	3___	Justifiable under extreme circumstances, even when illegal
	4___	Justifiable whenever they can be effective
	5___	Other (specify:_____)
		20. In your opinion, which of the following issues would justify a teachers' strike? Please indicate one or more of the following:
55	___	Curriculum
56	___	Salaries
57	___	Fringe benefits
58	___	Sabbatical leave
59	___	School calendar
60	___	Management of discipline problems
61	___	Promotional policies
62	___	Class size
63	___	Grievance procedures
64	___	None of these

	Code	Question
65		21. In May, 1970, the KCEA membership voted in favor of "no contract--no work." How did you vote on this issue?
	1___	Voted for "no contract--no work"
	2___	Voted against "no contract--no work"
	3___	Did not vote, although eligible
	4___	Was not a member of KCEA
	5___	Was not teaching in Kalamazoo City at that time
66		22. There is much discussion about the possibility of a merger of the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers. How would you feel about such a merger?
	5___	Strongly approve
	4___	Approve
	3___	Ambivalent
	2___	Disapprove
	1___	Strongly disapprove

23. In your opinion, what is the main difference between the KCEA and a teachers' union?

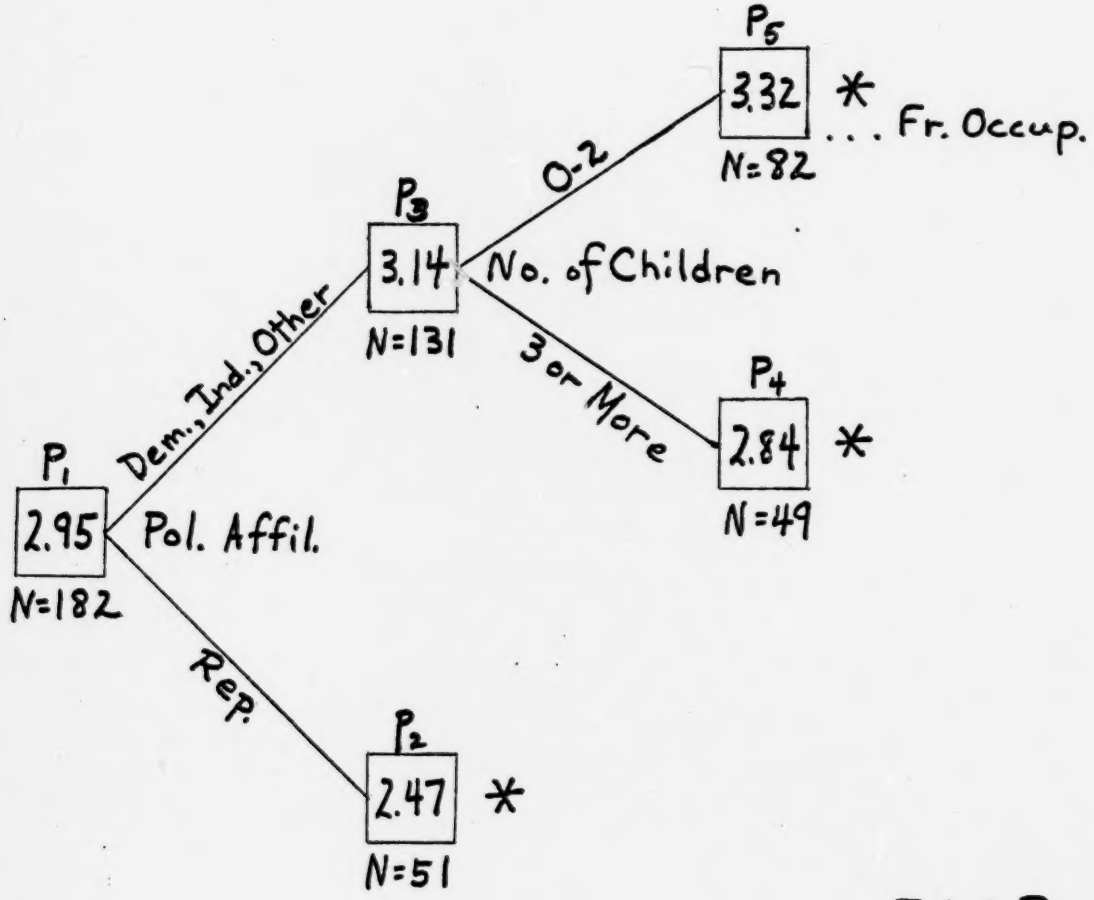
APPENDIX B

TREE 1 : IMA Means for All Cases, All Variables



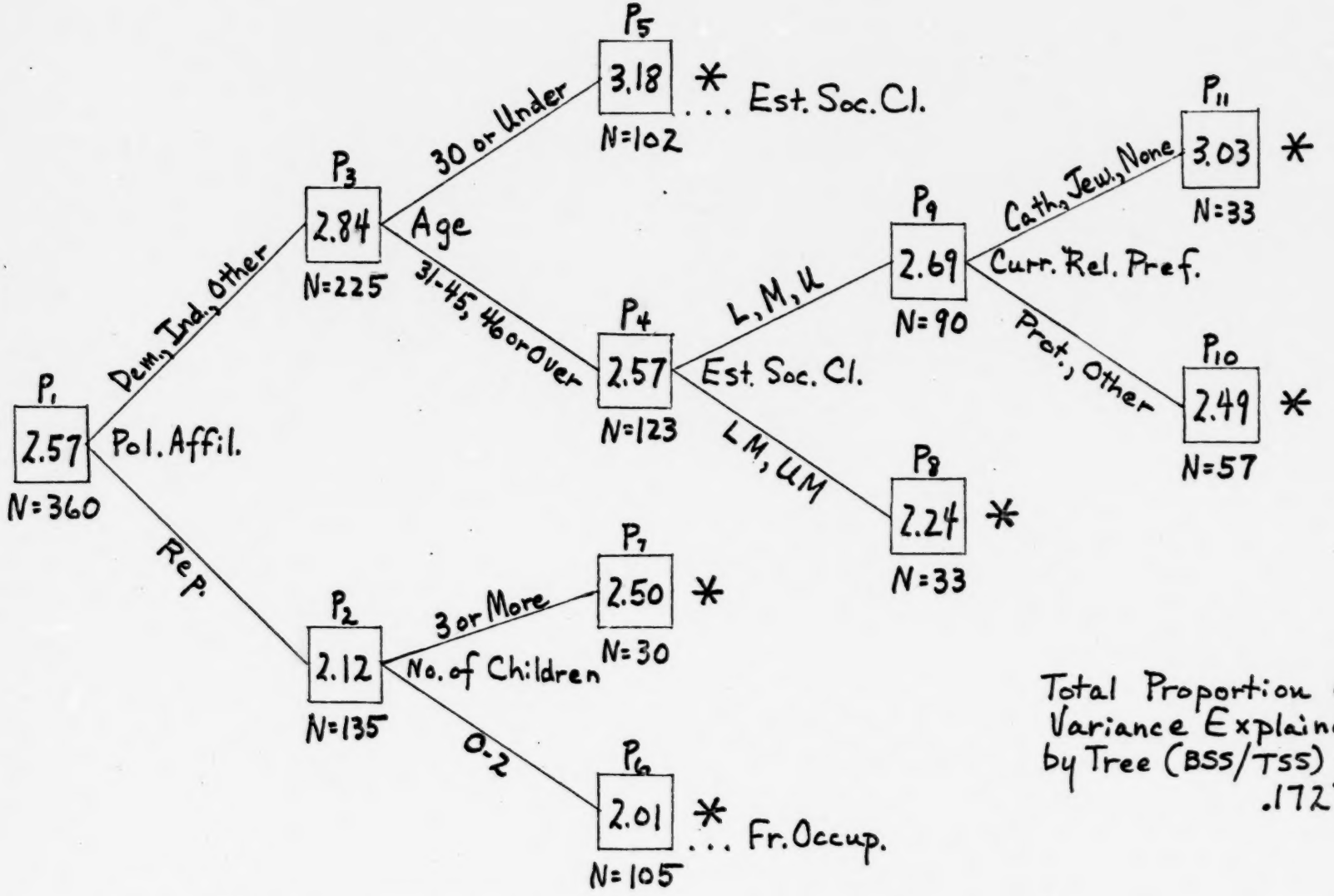
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS)= .1376

TREE 2 : IMA Means for Males, All Variables



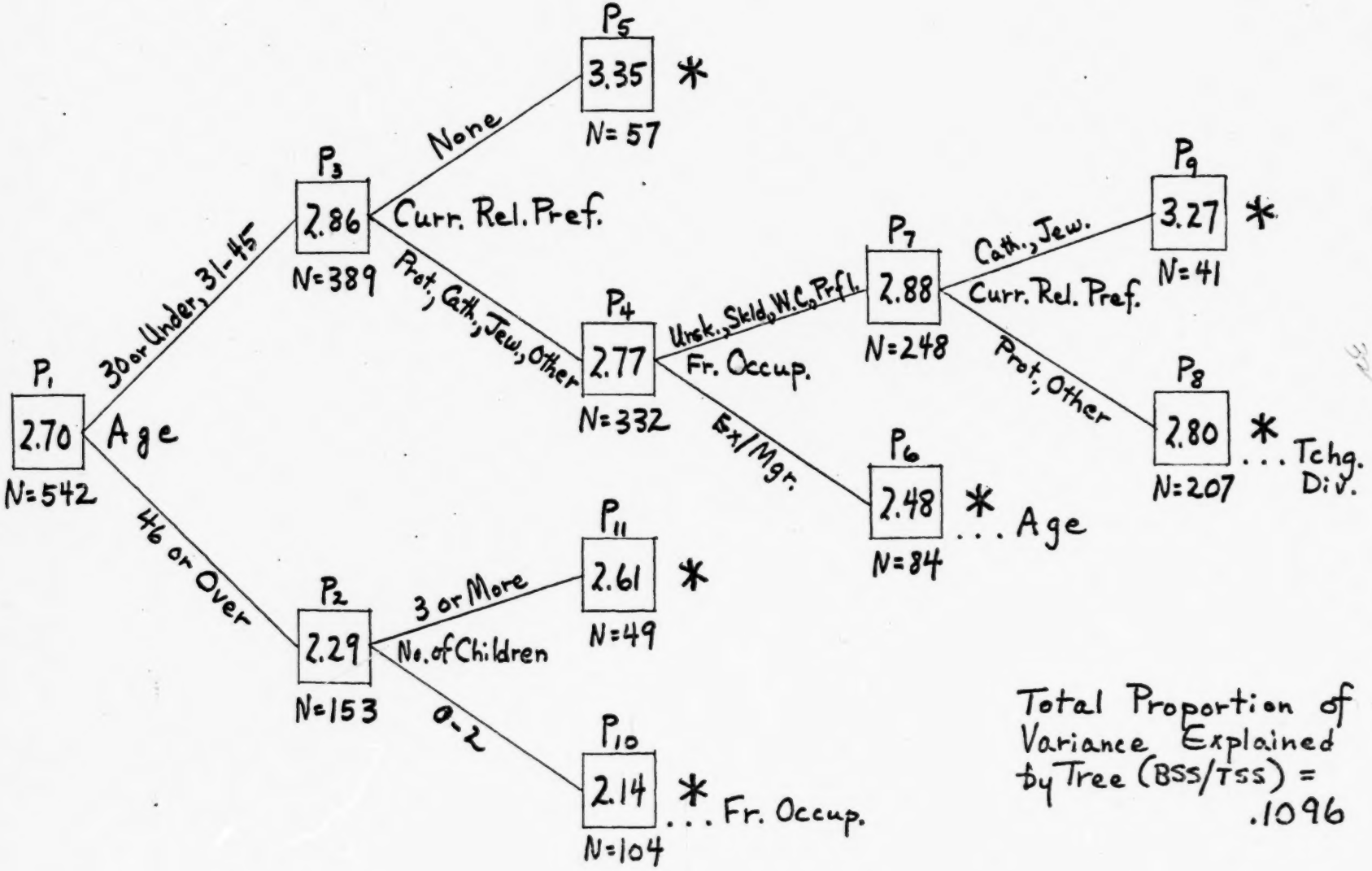
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS)= .1144

TREE 3 : IMA Means for Females, All Variables



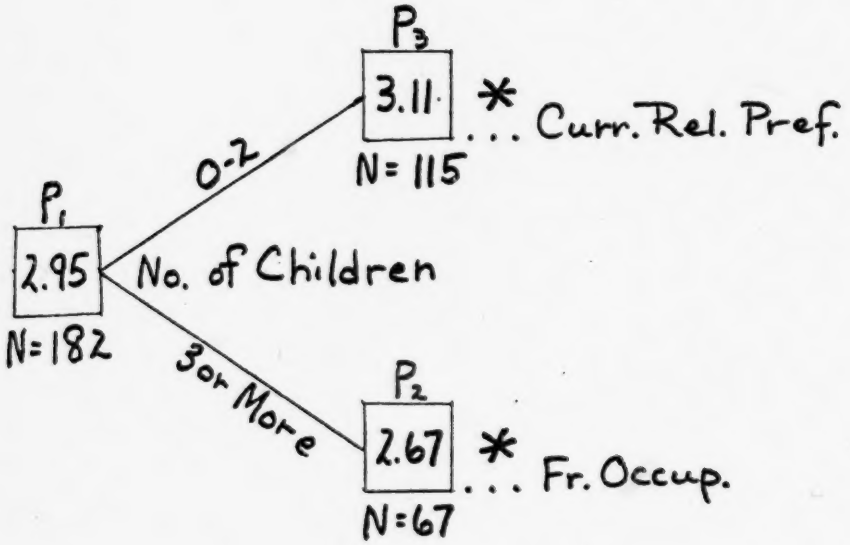
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1727

TREE 4 : IMA Means for All Cases, Political Affiliation Excluded



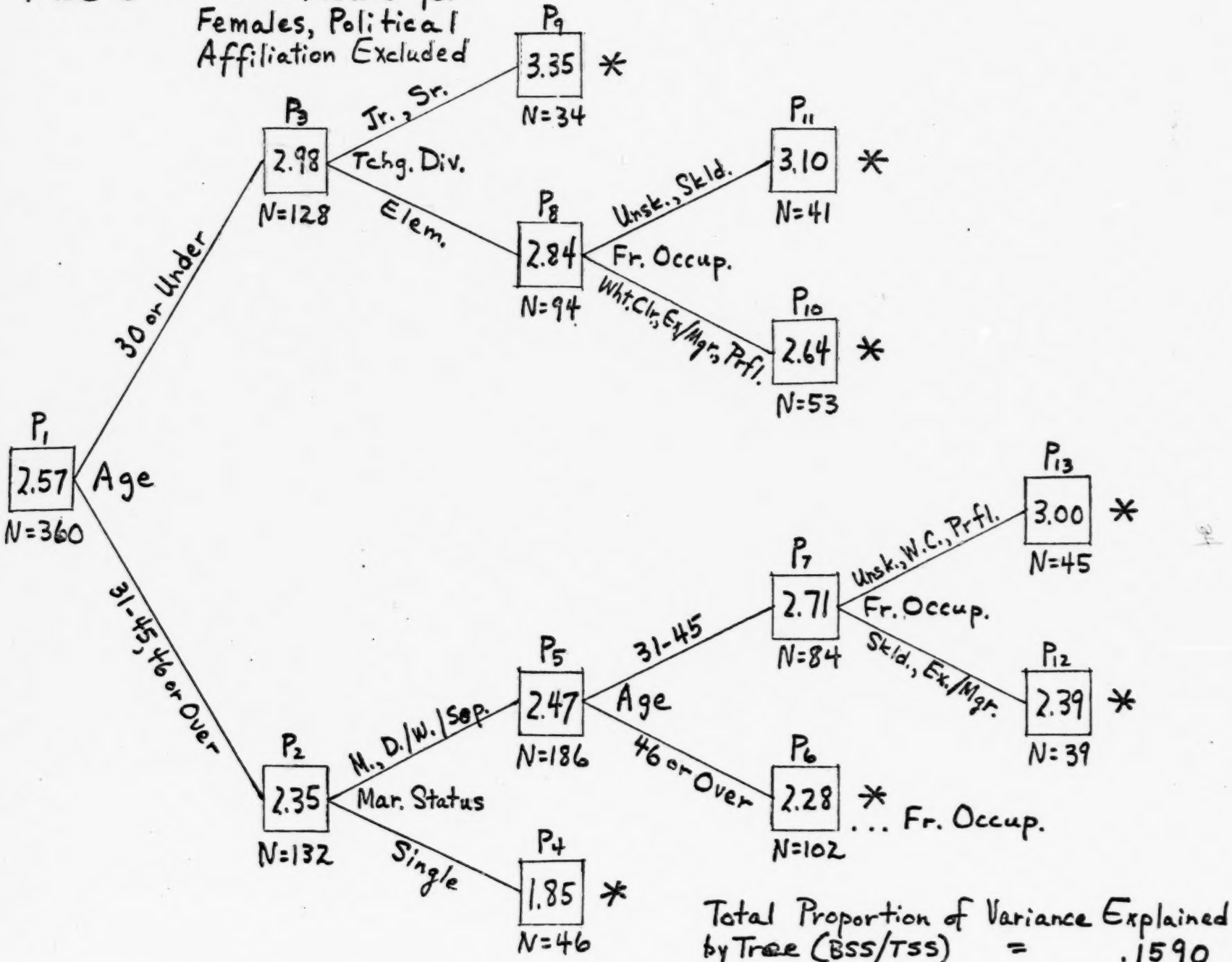
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1096

TREE 5: IMA Means for Males, Political Affiliation Excluded



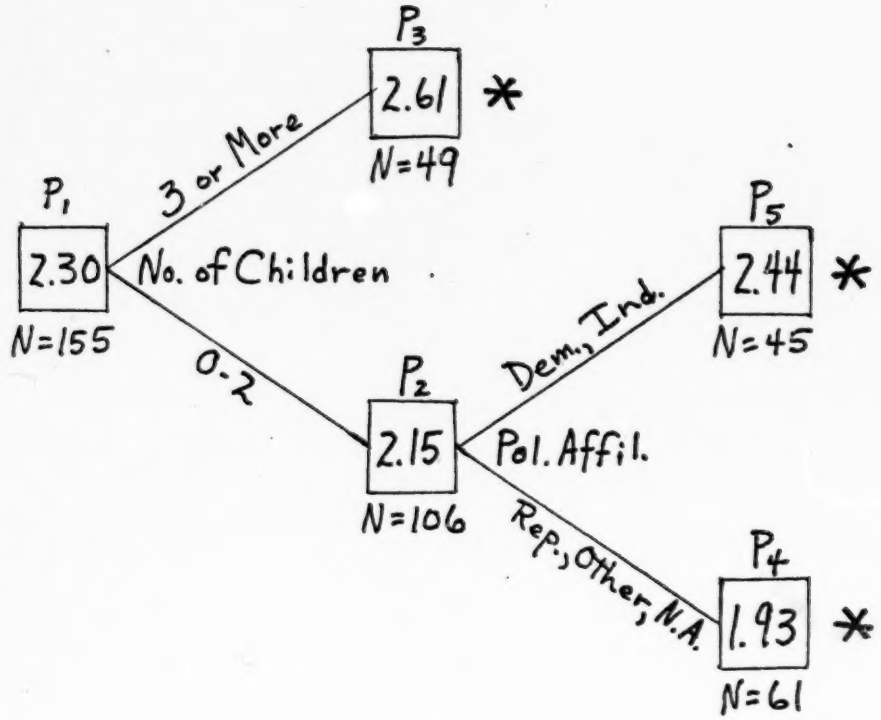
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .0404

TREE 6 : IMA Means for Females, Political Affiliation Excluded



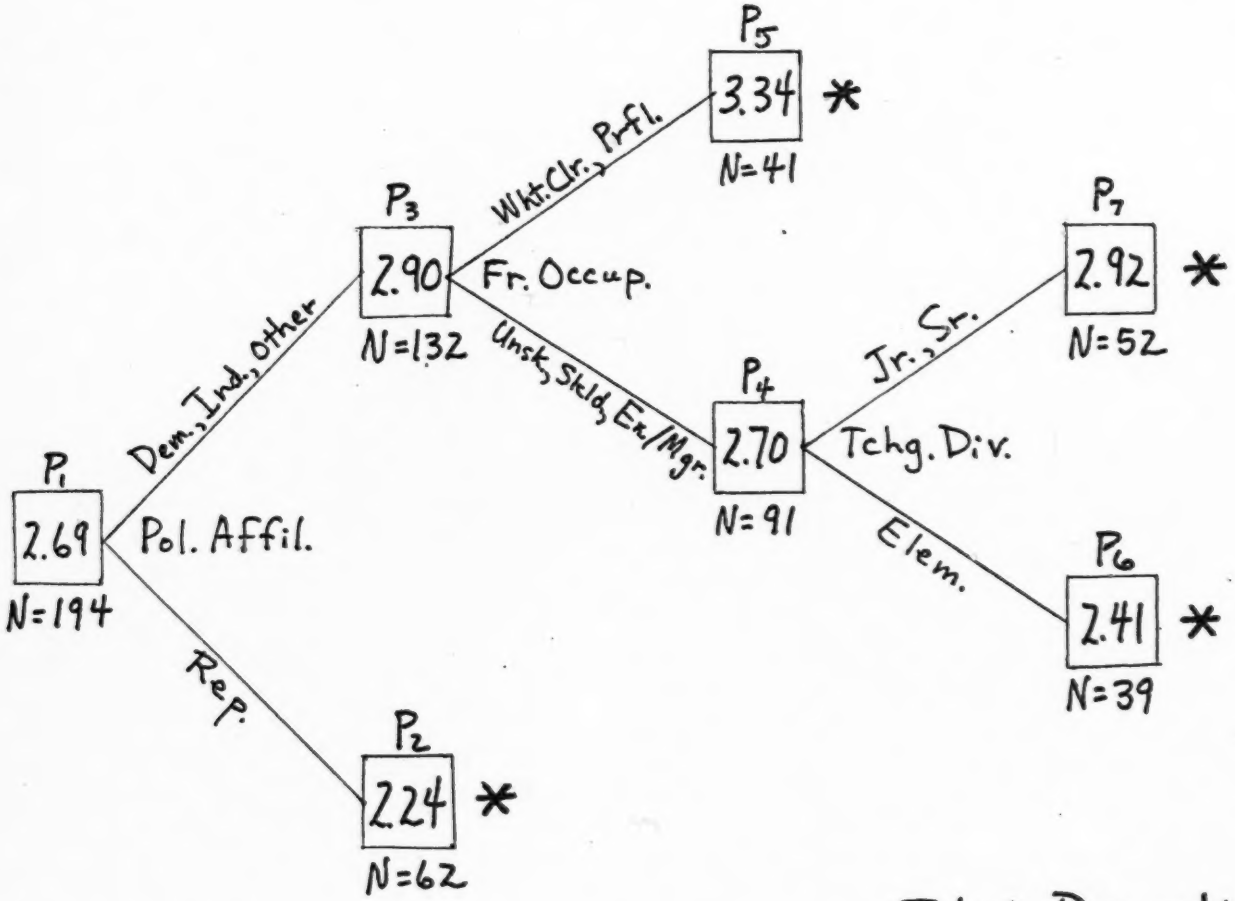
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1590

TREE 7 : IMA Means for Older Age Group (46 Years or Older), All Variables



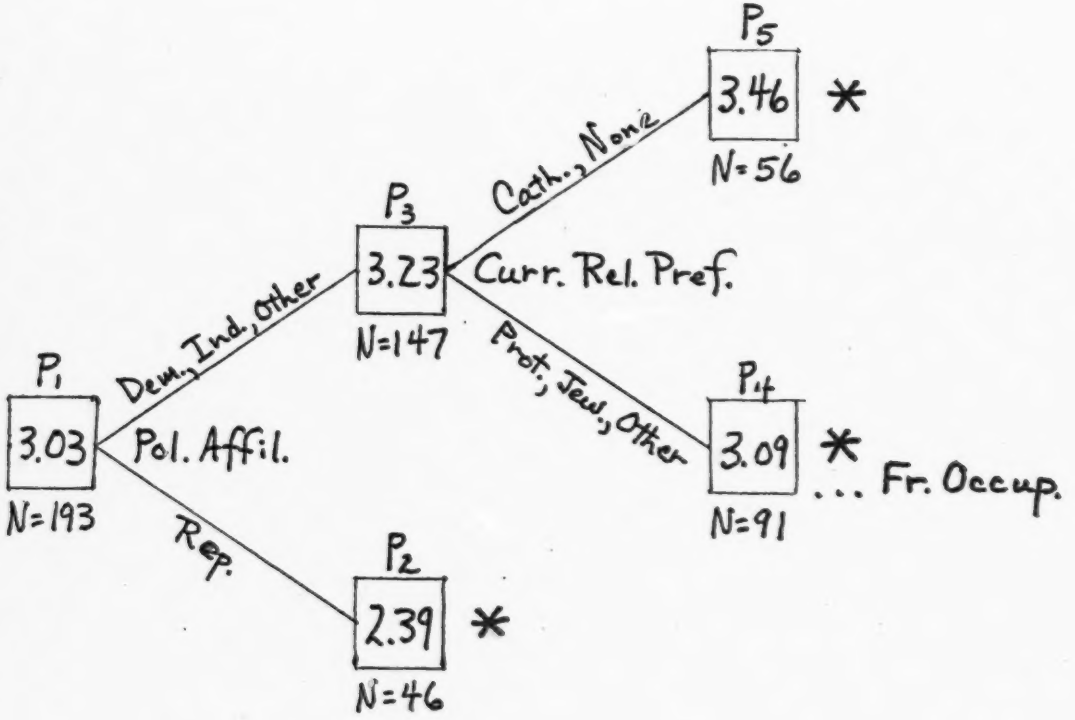
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .0007

TREE 8 : IMA Means for Middle Age Group (31-45 Years), All Variables



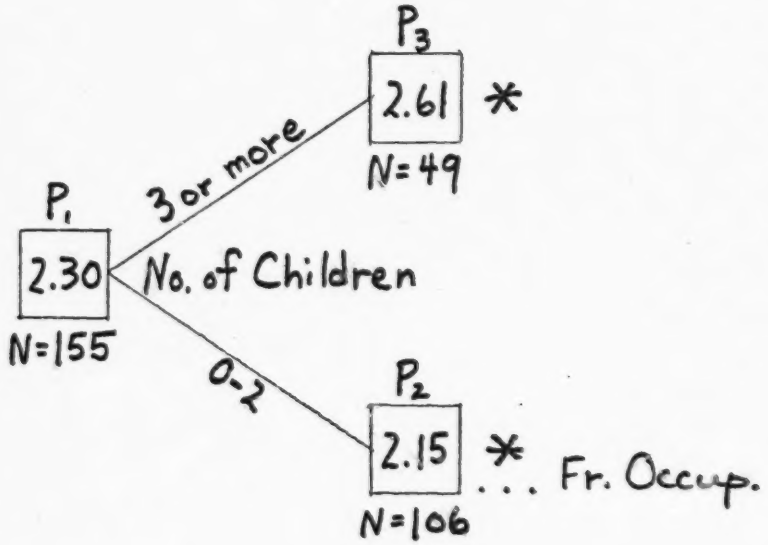
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1444

TREE 9 : IMA Means for Younger Age Group (30 Years or Younger), All Variables



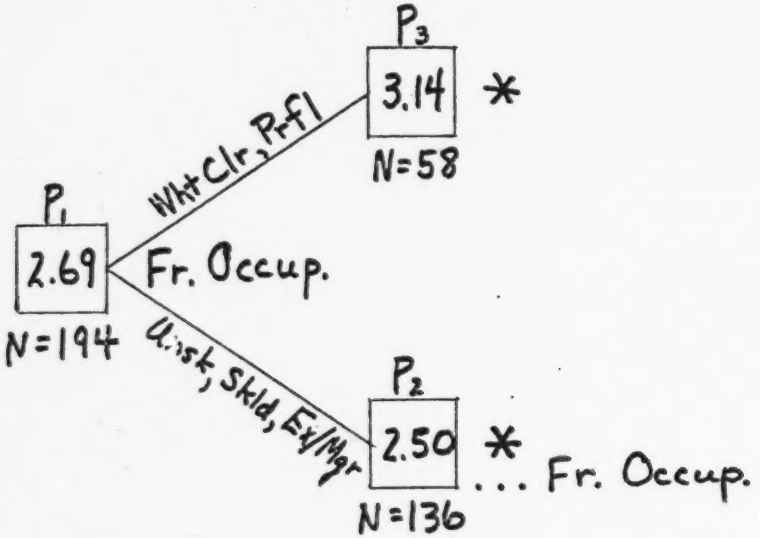
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .1454

TREE 10: IMA Means for Older Age Group (46 years or Over), Political Affiliation Excluded



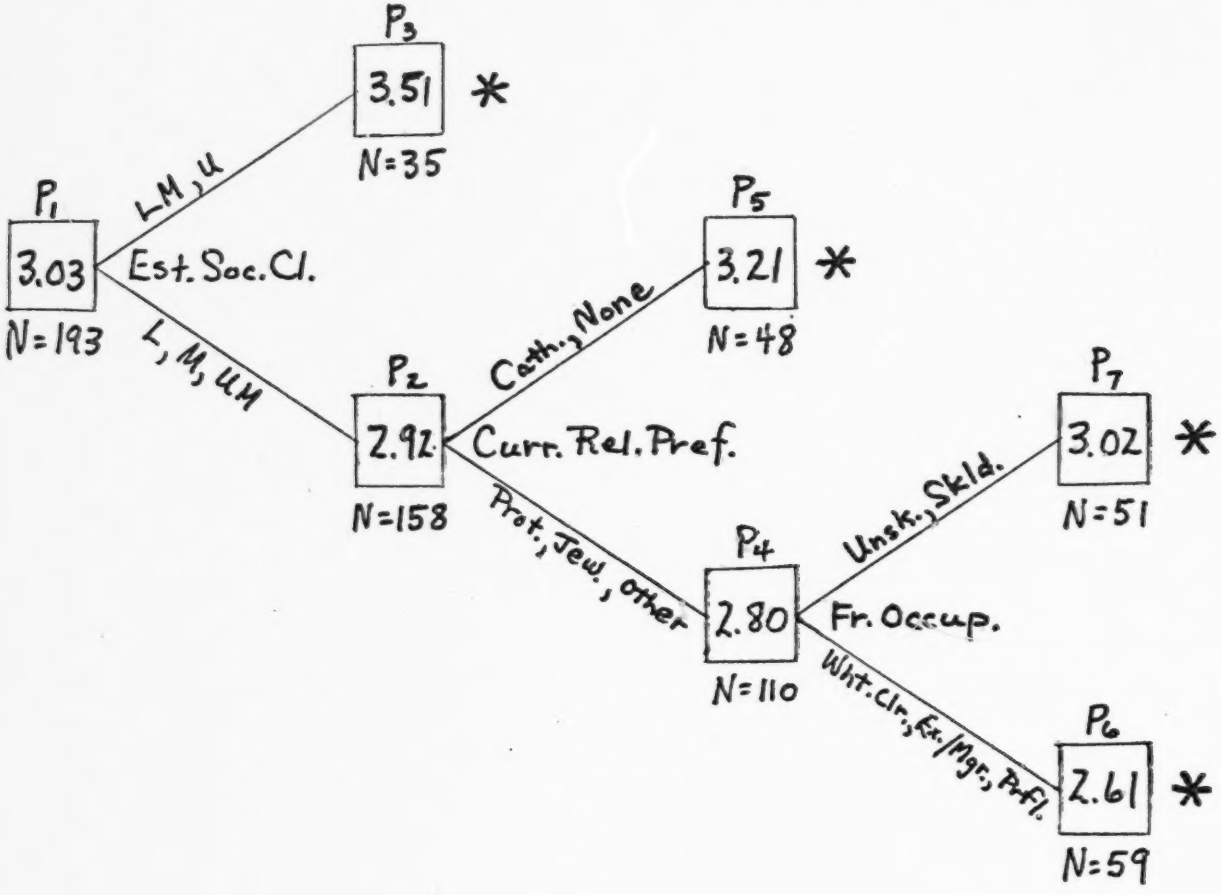
Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .0364

TREE 11 : IMA Means for Middle Age Group (31-45 Years), Political Affiliation Excluded



Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .0669

TREE 12: IMA Means for Younger Age Group (30 Years or Under), Political Affiliation Excluded



Total Proportion of Variance Explained by Tree (BSS/TSS) = .0991